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form and vigorous, stimulating style. The author looks at the problems from the large, sociological, human welfare viewpoint, and shows in good perspective the various social contacts and relationships. The author writes apparently with full understanding of the situation derived from observation and investigation, and certainly with intensity of conviction and forcefulness of expression. The book ought to be very widely read. It is a type of which we need more.

The author is not content with the frequent assumption that the way to devise plans for a vocational school is to go abroad, find out how the work is carried on by the best schools in Germany or France, and then plan a system of work for America in imitation. Neither, in her opinion, is one community in our own country to imitate the work done in another community where conditions may be different in many ways. A plan of work is to be drawn up according to the needs indicated by a systematic social survey of the conditions of the particular community concerned.

The chapter headings show the ground covered. In "The Hand of Iron" the author shows how the problems have been complicated by the giving of the skill of industry over to the machine, and the making of the resulting unskilled man but a slave to the machine; she then indicates the educational solution. In "The Public School" and "The School for the Plain Man" she shows the lack of democratic fairness in our educational scheme as it now stands and points out the things that are needed for the democratic "square deal" in education. Other chapter headings are self-explanatory: "Trade Education and the Woman"; "In the Country"; "Trade Education and Organized Labor"; "Foreign Trade Schools"; "American Experiments"; "The Type of Trade School Needed in the United States"; "Choosing a Vocation." Carefully selected bibliographies of French, German, Swiss, English, and American literature on the topic are appended.

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"Education for Life in American High Schools." By WILHELM STEITZ.
(*Neue Jahrbücher für das klassische Altertum, Geschichte, und deutsche Literatur, und für Pädagogik*, August, 1912.)

In the August number of the *Neue Jahrbücher*, Dr. Wilhelm Steitz, Prussian exchange teacher in the University High School for the year 1910-11, writes on "Education for Life in the American High Schools" ("*Die Erziehung für das Leben an den amerikanischen High Schools*"). He begins by saying that, like most German visitors to American schools, he has received the impression that they do not rank as high as the German schools in scholarship, exact knowledge, and especially historical interpretation. But, he continues, the American schools do not aim at scholarship in the same degree as the German schools, but rather at "education for life." The German schools of course also claim

to prepare their students for life, but they try to accomplish this end by means of the scholarly and thorough training given their students in a course in general education. They pursue an indirect method, whereas the American takes the direct way, as he says. Dr. Steitz then proceeds to show what he means by "education for life," basing his observations in the main on his experience at the University High School.

He describes in detail and in an interesting and sympathetic manner those features of the American system which are designed to give social training to the pupils. He discusses the high-school publications, the monthlies, dailies, weeklies, and the annuals, the weekly assembly, athletics, debating, the organization of the classes with their officers and committees, the various clubs, and the school dances. He sees in the large number of short stories in the publications the influence of our monthly magazines, which abound in the form of literary entertainment most agreeable to the nature of the American. Viewed from a pedagogical standpoint, he thinks this form of composition deserves only encouragement, and he finds the stories well written. In the large-typed and sensational headlines and in the optimistic tone and fondness for exaggeration he sees the influence of the daily press.

He discusses the weekly assembly at length and notes especially the training in public speaking which the pupils receive. He finds that the boys and girls speak with assurance and in a simple manner, appropriate to the occasion. He observes in the assemblies also that fostering of the spirit of loyalty to the school which is lacking in German schools. The writer remembers, for instance, that in his school days the foot-ball enthusiasts remained in ignorance of the victories of the boat crew of their own school.

In the discussion of athletics, the writer is struck by the highly developed system of contests that prevails. After noting that we aim to develop the quality of leadership in the captains, the ability to work for a common cause on the part of the teams, and loyalty on the part of the onlookers, he points out how the athletic contests further the sympathetic relations between teachers and pupils because of the common interest and enthusiasm that they arouse. The contests are, however, so numerous, so exciting, and so time-absorbing that they must of necessity interfere with the ability of the pupils to do scholarly work.

After a sympathetic discussion of the above and many similar features of our educational system, the writer concludes that these things demand so much of the pupil's time and energy that his scholarly attainments cannot be very marked. It seems to him that these features could be introduced into the German system only by sacrificing something of the thorough training that is now given.

The writer then proceeds to compare the results of the two systems of education. The American method is undoubtedly successful in America. For one thing, the pupils have more *Schulfreudigkeit*. They take more pleasure and interest in their school life than German pupils. This, however, is con-

finned only to the features outlined above. When it comes to the studies the *Schulverdrossenheit* is greater with us than among the German pupils. He also considers an important element the greater assurance of bearing and greater self-possession of American students, qualities which so often determine one's success in life. The German graduate of a gymnasium, the *Abiturient*, is an awkward figure in comparison with the high-school Senior. The outward assurance of the Senior is, however, in marked contrast to his intellectual immaturity, his lack of interest in higher intellectual questions, and his ignorance. Early independence in practical matters characterizes the American pupil, but this is probably primarily due to the environment afforded by a new country still rich in possibilities for advancement and to the fact that children are treated as grown-ups much earlier than is customary in Germany. But though the young American shows a greater independence in practical matters, this cannot be said of his independence in intellectual matters. The independent thinkers in America are fewer and the intellectual uniformity is greater than in Germany. The *Abiturient* has a larger capital in the way of possibilities for further intellectual development and the ability to work. The German can acquire at the university and in military service those things in which the young American excels; but the desire for serious thought and study must be implanted early or it will never really exist.

The article is well written and proves the author a careful observer and sympathetic interpreter of conditions widely different from those to be found in the schools of his own country. Such inaccuracies as appear are few and generally unimportant. While we readily agree when he speaks of our admiration for the German educational system, we are surprised at his statement that whenever in America there is a demand for a *höhere Arbeitskraft* we look for a German trained in Germany.

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The Conservation of the Child: A Manual of Clinical Psychology Presenting the Examination and Treatment of Backward Children. By ARTHUR HOLMES. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1912. Pp. 345.

Twenty-five years ago children were roughly grouped into three classes, the bright, the dull, and the feeble-minded. In those days it was thought Nature had dealt so unkindly with individuals in the latter group that little, if anything, could be done for them by way of making them self-helpful. When a child was diagnosed as an imbecile, he was placed in a special institution with a view to having him cared for during the whole of his life. At the same time, there were many children in the schools who were not regarded as feeble-minded, but who gave teachers a vast amount of trouble because of intellectual or moral delinquencies. These delinquencies were generally